

BRIEF REPORT



Social Media Users Potentially Experience Different Withdrawal Symptoms to Non-social Media Users

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Since the introduction of the terms problematic internet use (PIU; Kuss & Lopez-Fernandez, 2016) and ‘Internet Addiction’ (IA; Young, 1998), substantial changes have occurred in how and why individuals access digital resources (Caplan, 2018). Many individuals employ mobile devices for very different purposes (e.g., social media) to those for which PCs were employed when IA was initially studied (Škařupová et al., 2016). As a result, basic unaddressed questions exist, such as whether similar psychological effects (e.g. psychological withdrawal on removal of access to the device) are seen for smartphone-generated PIU, compared to PC-generated PIU (Romano et al., 2013; Reed et al., 2017).

Previous studies have demonstrated physiological and psychological internet withdrawal effects for individuals with higher PIU levels after accessing the internet via a PC (Reed et al., 2017; Romano et al., 2013). However, with changes in usage patterns of those accessing digital resources (i.e. for social media rather than traditional internet resources), it is unclear whether withdrawal effects would be observed when higher PIU scores are associated with mobile device use for social media. Similarly, there is little evidence concerning whether withdrawal effects would be present for those who are younger (i.e. below 18 years) than the samples studied in previous explorations. This may be important, as younger individuals constitute a large proportion of those using mobile devices.

Given the paucity of knowledge, the current study adopted an exploratory strategy to investigate whether withdrawal effects, elicited on removal of access to a mobile device, differed between groups of individuals: in particular, younger versus older; and social media users versus nonusers. Withdrawal is complex, including cognitive, physiological, and emotional responses, and this study focused on subjective emotional responses. A previously employed design (Reed et al., 2017; Romano et al., 2013) was used, in which changes in psychological functioning of participants were assessed comparing before to after a period of internet use. Psychological withdrawal effects would be seen if any change

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33 was greater for higher, compared to lower, PIU scorers. A second measure of withdrawal
34 was also employed, based on the hypothesis that cues associated with accessing substances
35 or activities that alleviate withdrawal will become positively valenced (Osborne et al.,
36 2016; Yeomans et al., 2005). In a previous study, participants who displayed higher PIU,
37 and who were given access to the internet after a period of abstinence, reported a change
38 in their favourite colour in line with those colours seen during exposure to the internet
39 (Osborne et al., 2016).

40 Motivation for using digital technology can be 'excitement-seeking' or 'escape-behaviour'
41 (Lu et al., 2019). Removal of access to digital resources may have different effects
42 depending on the maintaining factors. Removal of access to escape-motivated activities
43 can increase physiological arousal and psychological distress (Covi et al., 1973; Oldham &
44 Desan, 2016). In contrast, removal from excitement-generating activities (stimulant-like)
45 may produce the opposite effects on physiology and psychological distress (Murray, 1998).
46 If internet access serves an 'escape-driven' purpose, as it apparently did for previous older,
47 more traditionally accessing users of the internet (Romano et al., 2013), then an increase in
48 psychological distress should also be noted on removal of access. However, if participants
49 access digital resources for excitement-seeking purposes, then a different impact of mobile
50 device removal should be noted—with the most likely impact of being to reduce psycho-
51 logical distress.

52 Method

53 Participants

54 A total of 101 smartphone users (29 males, 72 females) were recruited from a target popu-
55 lation of 12 to 30 years old. All participants were volunteers, and received no payment
56 or credit. The mean age was 17.46 (± 4.74 ; range 12–30). One sub-sample comprised 51
57 university students (mean age = 21.73 \pm 2.66; range 18–31). Another comprised 50 pupils
58 from a middle school (mean age = 13.09 \pm 0.41; range = 12–14); this allowed an age range
59 including younger participants than have typically been studied. In response to the ques-
60 tion 'How long do you spend on your mobile phone each day?', 52 (52%) indicated that
61 they spent 1–3 h/day on their mobile phone; 40 (40%) 4–7 h; and 9 (9%) > 7 h. There was
62 no gender difference in amount of time spent on the smartphone, $X^2(3) = 5.86$, $p = 0.119$,
63 $\phi = 0.241$, nor between the younger and older subsamples, $X^2(3) = 3.08$, $p = 0.379$,
64 $\phi = 0.175$.

65 Materials

66 Internet addiction test (IAT; Young, 1998) is a 20-item scale internet disruption of every-
67 day life. The overall score ranges from 20 to 100. A cut-off score of 50 or more represents
68 some PIU. The internal reliability (Cronbach α) of the scale is around 0.90 (Widyanto &
69 McMurrin, 2004).

70 Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS; Zigmond & Snaith, 1983) is a self-
71 report measure of psychological distress (anxiety, depression). It contains 14 items (7 anxi-
72 ety; 7 depression), giving a range of 0–42, and the overall score is an index of distress
73 (Khan et al., 2013). Internal reliability (α) ranges from 0.77 to 0.82 for a non-clinical popu-
74 lation (Bjelland et al., 2002).

75 Procedure

76 Participants were asked to turn off their smartphones for 60 min. In this time, they were
77 given an introduction to the study, completed the HADS, and were asked to name the first
78 colour that came into their mind. Following this, participants were told that the experi-
79 menter would return to complete the experiment, and were asked to wait and access the
80 internet through their mobile phones, which all participants did. A short 15-min internet
81 period was used, as this has been found long enough to produce psychological changes in
82 high problem users (Reed et al., 2015). Moreover, shorter periods of internet use are refle-
83 ctive of current methods of interacting with mobile devices (Cheever, Rosen, Carrier, &
84 Chavez, 2014).

85 At the end of the 15-min phone-use period, the experimenter returned; participants were
86 asked to turn off their smartphone for 15 min. After this period, they were again asked to
87 name the first colour that came to mind, and to complete the HADS, as well as answer-
88 ing two questions regarding their use of the internet: ‘How long do you spend on your
89 mobile phone each day?’; and: ‘What is your main use of your mobile phone (on average,
90 the activity that occupies more than 50% of your time)’. Finally, they completed the IAT
91 questionnaire.

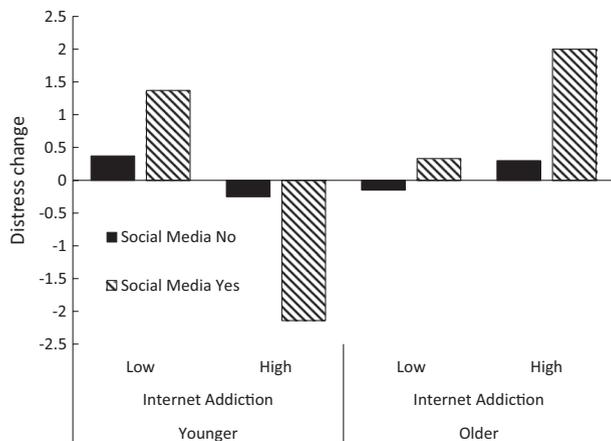
92 Results

93 To explore whether mobile devices were primarily used to access social media, the sample
94 was split into those who did, and did not, use social media as the main function on their
95 mobile device. The sample was also divided into lower and higher internet addicts (using
96 the cut-off point of the IAT), and into younger and older participants (under 18 or 18 and
97 over). Whether the change in psychological distress from baseline to after mobile removal
98 was significantly greater than zero was assessed by a series of Wilcoxon signed rank tests
99 due to the change scores not being normality distributed, and the collinearity between the
100 variables. Due to the exploratory nature of the analysis, the key objective was not to com-
101 mit a Type II error (McDonald, 2009).

102 Figure 1 shows the group-mean change scores (post-mobile use minus pre-mobile use)
103 for psychological distress (HADS_T) for the lower and higher internet addiction groups,
104 groups using and not using social media as their main use of their mobile phone, and
105 younger and older participants. These data suggest that changes in distress following ces-
106 sation of mobile usage were limited to higher PIU scorers. They were different for the two
107 age groups, and for those using and not using social media as the main function of their
108 mobile device. For younger people, internet addicts using social media showed a decrease
109 in distress after cessation, but a numerical increase in distress if they did not use social
110 media. For the older participants, internet addicts using social media demonstrated an
111 increase in distress following cessation of mobile use, but those who did not use
112 social media demonstrated a numerical decrease in distress.

113 There was a significant change from zero for the younger participants with higher levels
114 of internet addiction who used social media, $z=1.997$, $p=0.048$, but not for the higher
115 internet addiction group not using social media, $z=0.342$, $p>0.30$, or for the lower inter-
116 net groups either using, $z=1.265$, $p=0.206$, or not using, $z=0.588$, $p>0.30$, social media.
117 For the older participants, there was a significant change from zero for those with higher

Fig. 1 Group-mean change scores (post-mobile use minus pre-mobile use) for distress scores (HADS_T) for the lower and higher internet addiction groups, and groups not using social media and using social media as their main use of their mobile phone, for younger and older participants



118 levels of internet addiction and who used social media, $z=2.032$, $p=0.042$, but not for the
 119 higher internet addiction group not using social media, $z=0.319$, $p>0.30$, or for the lower
 120 internet groups whether using, $z=0.864$, $p>0.30$, or not using, $z=0.319$, $p>0.30$, social
 121 media.

122 It was also noted that 22/40 (55%) participants who showed a decrease in distress after
 123 mobile device removal changed their named colour; 23/36 (64%) who showed an increase
 124 in distress changed their colour, but only 8/25 (32%) who did not show any distress change
 125 changed their colour, $X^2(2)=6.185$, $p=0.045$, $\phi=0.247$.

126 Discussion

127 The major novel finding was that the effect of removing a mobile device on psychologi-
 128 cal state depended not only on the level of PIU, but also on age, and the primary usage of
 129 mobile devices. For older participants, removal of the mobile device for social media users
 130 increased psychological distress. In contrast, younger social media users showed a reduc-
 131 tion in psychological distress on removal of the mobile device.

132 The results from the older group with higher PIU corroborate previous studies in which
 133 internet access was through a traditional PC (Reed et al., 2017; Romano et al., 2013). The
 134 increase in psychological distress after ceasing to use the mobile device suggests with-
 135 drawal effects consistent with the function of the mobile device being 'sedative'—with-
 136 drawal effects, typically, being the opposite of the effect of the activity/substance (Mur-
 137 ray, 1998; Oldham & Desan, 2016). These effects were most pronounced for those whose
 138 primary function of the mobile device was social media. In contrast, younger participants
 139 (under 18 years) with higher PIU demonstrated a decrease in psychological distress when
 140 separated from their mobile device, most pronouncedly for social media users. These with-
 141 drawal effects are consistent with some previous reports concerning removal of stimulants,
 142 which can reduce anxiety and increase lethargy (Murray, 1998). Whatever the cause of
 143 these withdrawal effects, the effect of device removal for younger participants was strik-
 144 ingly different to that for older participants, and was greater for social media users.

145 The reasons underlying the apparently differing natures of withdrawal in younger and
 146 older participants require further exploration, but may include the function of internet

147 access through the mobile device. Older participants may have more stressful lives, and
148 need escape, whereas younger participants seek excitement. Thus, although the effect of
149 age is indicative of an interesting controlling variable, any conclusion must remain specu-
150 lative, as differences may reflect reasons other than age. The importance of mobile devices
151 to older adults, perhaps using these devices for work emails, bills, banking, compared to
152 younger users, who perhaps have, predominately, recreational usage, may impact any with-
153 drawal effects.

154 Changes in psychological distress may not solely be associated with withdrawal effects,
155 and could reflect the operation of mobile-removal induced stress, and the subsequent cop-
156 ing mechanisms. The difference between such effects and withdrawal is subtle, and would
157 need to be explored further. It should be noted that there was a clear relationship between
158 showing a change in psychological distress on removal of the mobile device, and show-
159 ing a shift in colour preference. This phenomenon has been observed accompanying drug
160 withdrawal in humans and nonhumans (Osborne et al., 2016; Yeomans et al., 2005), and
161 implies the presence of withdrawal in the current experiment. Irrespective of the nature of
162 the withdrawal effects, the presentation of the mobile did serve to elevate the psychologi-
163 cal correlates, and appeared to endow any associated cues with positive hedonic properties
164 (Osborne et al., 2016).

165 The current study was exploratory and attempted to highlight potential areas for further
166 investigation. An area for further analysis is the precise impact of age, as each group con-
167 tained a range. In particular, the younger group (12 to 14 years) may display within-group
168 developmental changes. Preliminary analysis shows no relationship between age and inter-
169 net addiction in this group ($r(50)=0.069$, $p>0.60$), but caution needs applying over statisti-
170 cal power involved. The nature of the data precluded parametric multivariate approaches,
171 or exploration of the potential interactions. The alternative multiple testing allows possibly
172 inflated error rates (somewhat offset by the reduction in power occasioned by nonpara-
173 metric procedures). This study focused on subjective measures of emotion, and using a
174 broader set of measures, perhaps that may show greater sensitivity to change over a short
175 time period, would be a good addition. Furthermore, withdrawal includes cognitive, physi-
176 ological, and emotional responses. While the psychological characteristics of withdrawal
177 are as important as physiological changes, including physiological responses would bolster
178 the findings (see Reed et al., 2017).

179 In summary, the current results demonstrated that withdrawal effects for those with
180 higher levels of internet addiction can be seen in samples whose prime access of the inter-
181 net is through mobile devices. These withdrawal effects were stronger in those whose main
182 usage of the mobile device was social media. However, younger and older participants dif-
183 fered in the nature of the withdrawal effect that was noted. Younger participants demon-
184 strated a decrease in psychological distress on removal of the mobile device, consistent
185 with social media serving an arousing function. In contrast, older participants showed an
186 increase in distress, indicating usage served a sedative function.

187

188 Declarations

189 **Ethics Approval and Consent to Participate** All procedures followed were in accordance with the ethical
190 standards of the responsible committee on human experimentation (institutional and national) and with the
191 Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2000 (5). Informed consent was obtained from all patients for
192 being included in the study.

193 **Conflict of Interest** The authors declare no competing interests.

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